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discovery of this new method of obtaining a silken material, (namely, by a reeling or circular motion applied to the insect itself,) I will defer to a future occasion a more complete account of the spider, of its habits, anatomy, and embryology, and of the various qualities of its silk, with whatever conclusion can be reached concerning the practicability of rearing the young; and also how far it is possible to apply the same process to the silk-worm, and other silk-producing larvæ.

Five hundred and fifty-ninth Meeting.

December 12, 1865. — MONTHLY MEETING.

The PRESIDENT in the chair.

A letter was read from Mr. Samuel Eliot in acknowledgment of his election into the Academy; also letters relative to exchanges.

The President called the attention of the Academy to the recent decease of Dr. John Lindley of London, of the Foreign Honorary Members.

Five hundred and sixtieth Meeting.

January 9, 1866. — MONTHLY MEETING.

The PRESIDENT in the chair.

The President called the attention of the Academy to the recent decease of Colonel James Duncan Graham of the Resident Fellows, formerly an Associate Fellow.

A memoir by Professor Child was presented by title, namely, "Remarks on the Language of Gower's *Confessio Amantis*: a Sequel to Observations on the Language of Chaucer, printed in Vol. VIII. of the Memoirs of the Academy."

Professor Cooke made the following communication:—

On the Aqueous Lines of the Solar Spectrum. By JOSIAH P. COOKE, JR.

A CAREFUL examination of the solar spectrum, continued during several months with the spectroscope described in a recent article of the

American Journal of Science,* has led me to the conclusion that a very large number of the more faint lines of the solar spectrum, hitherto known simply as *air* lines, are due solely to the *aqueous vapor* of our air, and hence that the absorption of the luminous solar rays by the atmosphere is at least chiefly owing to the aqueous vapor which it contains.

The appearance of the Fraunhofer's line D, seen under precisely the same conditions, but with increasing quantities of aqueous vapor in the atmosphere, is shown in Figures 1, 2, 3, and 4. The D line is selected, because, being a favorite test object for the spectroscope, its general appearance is well known to all observers. But even more marked changes than those here illustrated have been noticed in other, although chiefly in contiguous, portions of the solar spectrum.

These changes attracted my attention from my earliest observations with the spectroscope; but with my first instrument, and the bisulphide of carbon prisms then employed, it was almost impossible to eliminate the effects which might be caused by the variations in the condition of the instrument itself; and as these were known to be very great, it was possible that they might account for all the variations observed. With the improved instrument, however, just referred to, absolute constancy of action is obtained, and all merely instrumental variations avoided.

A peculiar condition of the atmosphere gave the first clew as to the cause of the changes under consideration. The weather on the 17th of November, 1865, at Cambridge, Massachusetts, was very unusual even for that peculiar season known in New England as the Indian Summer. At noon the temperature on the east side of my laboratory was 70° F., while the wet-bulb thermometer indicated 66°, showing an amount of moisture in the atmosphere equal to 6.57 grains per cubic foot. At the same time the atmosphere was beautifully clear, and the sun shone with its full splendor. I have never seen the aqueous lines of the spectrum more strongly defined than they were on this day; and the total number of lines visible in the yellow portion of the spectrum was at least ten times as great as are ordinarily seen. The appearance of the D line on that day is shown in Fig. 4. Between the two familiar broad lines D_1 and D_2 there were eight sharply defined lines of unequal intensity, which is only very imperfectly represented by the woodcut. In addition to these, on the more refrangible side of the space

* American Journal of Science and Arts, Vol. XI., November, 1865.

between the two D lines, there was a faint but broad nebulous band, barely resolvable into lines of still smaller magnitude.* It is impossible to represent this band accurately with a woodcut; and the shaded broad band marked κ on the right-hand side of Fig. 4 only serves to indicate its position and approximate breadth.

The 26th of December was also a warm day for the season, with a brilliant sun. At one o'clock, P. M., the dry-bulb thermometer marked 55° , the wet-bulb 50° , and hence the amount of moisture in the atmosphere was 3.76 grains per cubic foot. The appearance of the D line at this time is shown in Fig. 3. Two of the lines, η and θ , and the nebulous band κ , seen on the 17th of November, were invisible, and moreover the group of three lines $\delta \epsilon \zeta$ on the left-hand side of the figure were only just within the limits of visibility.

On the 25th of December only two lines were visible within the D line, marked α and β , in Fig. 2, and the last of these was quite faint. The temperature at the time of observation was 46° ; the wet-bulb thermometer indicated 40° , and the amount of moisture in the air was 2.42 grains per cubic foot. The sky was clear and the sun brilliant. Lastly, on January 5th, 1866, one of the clear cold days which are so common in our climate during the winter, only the single line α was visible within the D line, as is shown in Fig. 1. At the time of observation, near noon, the dry-bulb thermometer marked 10° , the wet-bulb 9° , and hence the amount of moisture in the atmosphere was only 0.81 of a grain per cubic foot. The sun, however, was as brilliant as in either of the previous cases. The D line also appeared as in Fig. 1 on the 8th of January, 1866, when the thermometer at noon stood at 10° below zero Fahrenheit, and when the barometer attained the unexampled height of 31 inches.

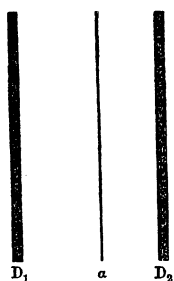
The above figures have been drawn so as to show, as nearly as possible, the relative intensity of the different lines under different atmospheric conditions. As no accurate means of making the comparison are yet known, I was obliged to depend upon my eye alone, and small differences at different times of observation may easily have escaped my notice. Indeed, I should have been liable to great error, were it not for the fact that one of the lines within the D line, marked α in all the figures, does not vary in intensity, and served as a constant standard in making the observations. This is the only line which is given

* We use this word in the same sense in which it is used by astronomers with reference to the fixed stars.

January 5th, 1866.

Temperature 10° F.
Dew-Point 1° 5 F.

FIG. 1.

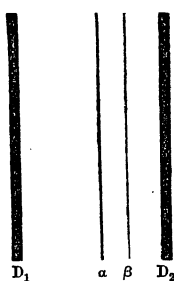


Weight of vapor
in 1 cubic foot
of air, } 0.81 grs.

December 25th, 1865.

Temperature 46° F.
Dew-Point 33° 4 F.

FIG. 2.

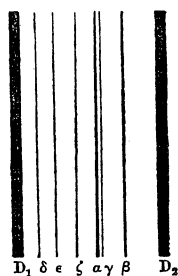


Weight of vapor
in 1 cubic foot
of air, } 2.42 grs.

December 26th, 1865.

Temperature 55° F.
Dew-Point 46° 5 F.

FIG. 3.

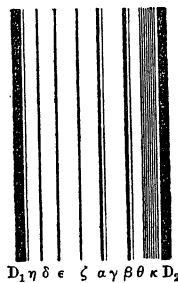


Weight of vapor
in 1 cubic foot
of air, } 3.76 grs.

November 17th, 1865.

Temperature 70° F.
Dew-Point 64° 0 F.

FIG. 4.



Weight of vapor
in 1 cubic foot
of air, } 6.57 grs.

by Kirchoff in his chart of the solar spectrum between the two D lines, and it is referred by him to the Nickel vapor, — as the D lines themselves are to the Sodium vapor, in the sun's atmosphere. It is an undoubted solar line, and has been drawn with the same strength in all the figures in order to show that it is invariable.

With a very dry atmosphere the line α is the only one which appears within the D lines, as shown in Fig. 1. With a slightly greater amount of vapor the line β makes its appearance. As the amount of vapor continues to increase, this line becomes more and more prominent, until at last, as shown in Fig. 4, it is even more intense than the line α . A careful comparison of these two lines might indeed serve as an approximate measure of the amount of vapor in the atmosphere; and a series of comparisons made under the same conditions at different heights would give data for determining the law according to which the amount of vapor decreases with the elevation above the sea level.

All the aqueous lines change in intensity like the line β . They are first seen very faintly when the amount of vapor in the air reaches a definite point, varying for the different lines, and gradually gain in intensity as the amount of vapor increases. Thus the group of three lines $\delta \epsilon \zeta$ do not appear in Fig. 2, are barely visible in Fig. 3, but become very marked in Fig. 4.* The lines η and θ and the nebulous band κ do not appear until the air is very moist; and even when it contains 6.57 grains of vapor per cubic foot, they are still very faint. Under yet more unusual atmospheric conditions they will undoubtedly become more intense, and we shall then probably be able to completely resolve the nebulous band and count the lines of which it consists.

It is hardly necessary to repeat, that the examples here given are selected from a large number of observations. During the cold dry weather of winter the appearance of the D line is uniformly as shown in Fig. 1, the line β only occasionally appearing when the atmosphere becomes more moist. During the warm weather of summer, when the absolute amount of moisture in the air is in almost all cases greater than in winter, the appearance of the D line is as uniformly that shown in Fig. 3. It is only very rarely in the dry climate of New England, even during the summer, that all the lines shown in Fig. 4

* With an increasing quantity of vapor in the atmosphere the line γ of Fig. 3 is seen before the group of lines $\delta \epsilon \zeta$, and an intermediate figure between 2 and 3 might be given showing only the lines D¹ $\alpha \gamma \beta$ D².

are visible; and, as already stated, I never before saw them so sharply defined as on the 17th of November last.

Several conditions must evidently concur in order that the aqueous lines should be developed in their greatest intensity. In the first place, the air must be charged with vapor not only near the surface of the earth, but also through a great height of the atmosphere. Local causes might greatly increase the amount of moisture in the lower strata of the atmosphere, and affect powerfully the hygrometer, which would not, to the same extent at least, influence the indications of the spectroscopic. In the second place, other things being equal, the intensity of the aqueous lines must be strengthened by increasing the length of the path of the sun's rays through the atmosphere, and this is the longer the lower the altitude of the sun. But then, again, the intensity of the light has such an important influence on the definition of the lines, and the slightest haze in the atmosphere so greatly impairs their distinctness, that I have generally found that the aqueous lines are seen best when the sun is near the meridian. Hence, with an equal amount of moisture in the atmosphere, the late autumn may be a more favorable season for seeing the aqueous lines than the summer; for then not only must the solar rays, when most brilliant at noon, traverse a greater extent of air, but, moreover, the atmosphere at this time is usually clearer, and the reflected beam of light which enters the spectroscopic is at times more brilliant than when the sun attains a higher elevation and the light is reflected under less favorable conditions.

In the examples cited above, the comparisons were made under as nearly as possible the same conditions, so as to eliminate all causes of variation except the one under consideration. Days were selected when the atmosphere was perfectly clear, and the sun's light, so far as I could judge, equally brilliant. Moreover, the position of the spectroscopic and mirror remained unchanged during the whole time. This mirror, which is used for reflecting the sun's light upon the slit of the spectroscopic, is so arranged that it can be turned into any position by the observer while his eye is at the eye-piece of the spectroscopic, and it was always carefully adjusted at each observation to the position of best definition. The manipulation of the mirror is fully as important in the use of the spectroscopic as it is in microscopy.

It will be of course understood that the power of developing these faint aqueous lines depends very greatly on the optical capabilities of the spectroscopic, and that the figures here given are relative to the

instrument used in the observations. This instrument has been fully described in the article already cited. It is sufficient for the present purpose to state that it is provided with nine flint-glass prisms* of 45° refracting angle, which bend the rays of light corresponding to the D line through an angle of $267^\circ 37' 50''$, and that corresponding to the H_1 line through an angle of $280^\circ 42' 20''$, when each passes through the prisms at the angle of minimum deviation. The dispersive power of the instrument for these two rays is therefore equal to $13^\circ 4' 30''$, and the rays corresponding to the two D lines are separated $1' 10''$. The object-glasses of the two telescopes of this spectroscope are $2\frac{1}{4}$ inches in diameter, and have a focal length of $15\frac{1}{2}$ inches, and lastly, the size of the prisms, and of the various parts of the instrument, is adapted to these dimensions. With a more powerful instrument a larger number of aqueous lines would be seen under the same atmospheric conditions. The Cambridge instrument has a set of sulphide of carbon prisms which disperse the light nearly twice as much as the flint prisms. The sulphide of carbon prisms are very variable in their action; but, under the best conditions, they might show the D line as in Fig. 3, when with the flint prisms it would appear as in Fig. 2.

The facts stated in this paper fully account for the discrepancies in the representations which different observers have given of the D line. Some time since, Mr. Gassiot, of London, gave in the *Chemical News* a representation of the D line as seen with his instrument, showing several lines in addition to those seen by myself and other observers. On visiting the Kew observatory, in the summer of 1864, I was surprised to find that this instrument was less powerful than the one I was then using; and I also learned that these lines were only seen on a single occasion. The moist climate of England is the evident explanation of the additional lines.

As I stated at the first of this paper, the D line has been selected simply to illustrate a general truth. The development of aqueous lines in contiguous portions of the spectrum is even more marked than in the exceedingly limited portion here represented. Indeed, as has been already intimated, the number of these lines seen in the yellow region of the spectrum, on the 17th of November, was at least ten

* These prisms were furnished by the American Academy from the income of the Rumford Fund, appropriated for investigations on light and heat. See Proceedings of the American Academy, Annual Meeting, May 24th, 1864.

times as great as that of the true solar lines. That part of the yellow of the spectrum which lies on the more refrangible side of the D line, and in which during dry weather only a comparatively few lines can be distinguished, was then as thickly crowded with lines as the blue or the violet, but the lines were of course far less intense.

Professor Tyndal, of London, has shown by a remarkable series of experiments with the thermo-multiplier, not only that aqueous vapor powerfully absorbs the obscure thermal rays, but also that the elementary gases of the atmosphere exert little or no action upon them. I have endeavored to establish in this paper, from direct observations with the spectroscope, a similar truth in regard to the luminous rays. It has been estimated by Pouillet and others that about one third of the solar rays intercepted by the earth are absorbed in passing through the atmosphere; and it now appears that aqueous vapor is a most important, if not the chief, agent in producing this result. It is impossible, however, from any data we yet possess, to determine how great a power of absorption is exerted by the oxygen and nitrogen gases which constitute the great mass of our atmosphere. I have shown that a very great many, and I have no doubt that almost all, the lines hitherto distinguished as air lines are simply aqueous lines; but it is very difficult to distinguish atmospheric lines from the true solar lines, and our knowledge of the first is as yet very incomplete. It still remains to make careful comparisons throughout the whole extent of the spectrum, before we can absolutely determine the relative absorbing power of the different constituents of our atmosphere.

One other inference from the facts here developed is worthy of notice before closing this paper. It has been for some time suspected that the blue color of the sky was in some way connected with the vapor in the atmosphere; and it is a fact of common observation, that this color is more intense during the moist weather of summer than during the more dry weather of winter. The distribution of the aqueous lines through the solar spectrum not only confirms the opinion previously entertained, but also points to the cause of the color. So far as my observations have extended, the aqueous lines are almost wholly, if not completely, confined to the less refrangible portion of the spectrum. Here they are found in vast numbers, and I am not positive that they exist anywhere else. If, then, the aqueous vapor absorbs most powerfully the yellow and red rays of the spectrum, the blue color of the sky is the necessary result. The color is therefore due to simple absorption,

and not to repeated reflections from the surface of drops of water, as some physicists have supposed.

As can readily be seen, the aqueous lines of the solar spectrum present a very wide field for investigation, but one which can only be cultivated under peculiar atmospheric conditions. This paper is only intended to open the subject. I hope to be able to continue the study on every favorable opportunity, and shall take pleasure in communicating any future results to this Academy.

Professor Charles W. Eliot exhibited to the Academy a dynamometer invented by Mr. S. P. Ruggles, the Curator of the Museum of the Institute of Technology.

"This new and admirable invention accomplishes two objects ; — first, it measures the exact amount of power which is being consumed in driving a single machine, or any number of machines, at any instant of time, indicating every change in the force required, as the work done by the machines varies from instant to instant ; secondly, the apparatus adds up and registers the total amount of power which has been used by any machine, or set of machines, during a day, a week, a month or any desired time. The apparatus may be thus described. The pulley, from which the power is taken, is attached to the shaft by the intervention of a spiral spring. One end of this spring is secured to the shaft, and the other end to the hub of the pulley. The lateral motion of the pulley upon the shaft is prevented by a collar on either side of the pulley. On the inside of the hub is cut a screw of about three-inch pitch, that is, a screw which makes a complete turn within a distance of about three inches measured on the axis of the hub. A rectangular slot is cut out of that part of the shaft which lies within the hub of the pulley, and in this slot slips backwards or forwards a piece of metal which precisely fits the slot. From each side of this small piece of metal there projects beyond the surface of the shaft a small portion of the male screw which exactly fits into the screw cut in the interior of the hub of the pulley. If there be no resistance at all to the motion of the pulley, the shaft, spring, and pulley will all start together, and revolve together. But if a resistance be offered to the motion of the pulley, the shaft, and with it the piece of metal which slips in the slot, will start first, and the pulley will move only when the strain caused by the twisting of the spring is sufficient to overcome the resistance applied to the circumference of the pulley. But if the piece of metal in

the slot begin to turn while the hub of the pulley is stationary, the piece must move laterally within the slot, being forced by the screw. If the pulley start a quarter of a turn later than the shaft, the piece will move laterally three quarters of an inch; if the pulley start a half a turn later than the shaft, the piece will move laterally an inch and a half. The lateral motion of the piece in the slot is proportional to the retardation of the pulley, and this retardation is proportional to the strain upon the belt which passes over the pulley, and conveys the power to be used. To the movable piece in the slot is connected a small round rod, which runs out through the centre of the main shaft and projects some little distance beyond it. On the end of this rod is a circular rack of teeth, in which plays a pinion, on whose shaft is a hand moving over a dial-plate. By applying strains, measured by standard scales, to the belt which passes over the pulley, — as a strain of ten pounds, fifty pounds, one hundred pounds, — it is easy to graduate the dial-plate into pounds, so that the number of pounds of strain upon the belt may be read off at any instant by a mere inspection of the dial. The mode of operation of this part of the apparatus is then as follows : — when no power is being conveyed from the pulley, shaft and pulley start simultaneously ; there is no lateral motion of the piece within the slot and its connected rod, and the hand on the dial points to zero. But the moment that power begins to be expended in driving the machinery, the strain upon the belt will be first felt by the spring which connects the pulley to the main shaft, and the spring will yield in proportion to the strain ; the effect is to let the shaft make a small part of a revolution in the hub of the pulley, before the pulley begins to turn and keep pace with the shaft ; the rod within the end of the shaft is thus drawn in a little, the hand moves over the dial-plate, and points to the exact number of pounds of power which the belt is conveying from the pulley at the instant of observation.

The registering of the total amount of power delivered from the pulley is effected by means of two small belts running over the round rod, which projects beyond the end of the main shaft and carries the index hand above described. These two small belts communicate the motion of the shaft to two parallel and equal wheels, one of which bears a dial-plate, and the other an index hand which moves over the dial-plate. When there is no strain upon the main belt going over the pulley, the two wheels revolve at the same rate, — neither gaining upon the other, and the hand remains constantly

over the same figure on the dial-plate ; but when a strain is put upon the belt and the round rod moves laterally, as above described, the lateral motion brings a conical enlargement of the rod under the little belt which moves the wheel bearing the dial. The dial-wheel now goes faster than the wheel carrying the hand, and begins to count up the power used. The greater the lateral motion of the rod, or, in other words, the greater the power transmitted to the working machines, the larger the diameter of the cone which comes under the belt of the dial-wheel, and the greater the gain of the dial upon the hand. The wheels of both dial and hand are constantly revolving in the direction opposite to that of the motion of the hands of a watch. The belt of the hand-wheel runs always upon the rod, where its diameter is constant, and as the rod moves laterally under the little belts, guides are necessary to keep the belts themselves from moving laterally also. The proportions of the cones on the rod, and of the two wheels which carry the dial and the hand, can be so adjusted as to make a difference of one complete revolution between the motions of the hands and of the dial indicate a delivery of ten thousand foot-pounds, or of ten million, or of any other convenient number, and, by a system of gearing analogous to that used in gas-metres, any desired amount of power could be consecutively registered. It is obvious that the registering apparatus takes account of both the strain and the speed, while the simple index first described measures only the strain.

This instrument is at once elegant in design, simple and therefore cheap in its construction, easily verified and proved at any moment when in operation, and of very easy application to any machine, or set of machines, driven by hired power, whether the power used be constant or variable in amount. The instrument admits of a great variety of forms : the one described above is meant for the end of a shaft ; another form is so arranged as to be attached at any part of a running shaft, while in the proportions and dimensions of the several parts there would be the same variety as in common scales, which are large or small, coarse or fine, according as they are meant to weigh coal or pills, hay or coin. The instrument meets a pressing want. Tea and sugar are sold by the pound, gas by the thousand feet, cloth by the yard, but steam-power and steam and air engines are sold by guesswork, or by rough and uncertain rules, on whose application buyer and seller can seldom agree.

Hereafter steam-power can be sold by the thousand or million foot-pounds.

Mr. Ruggles does not patent his valuable invention.

Dr. Jeffries Wyman presented the following paper:—

Notes on the Cells of the Bee.

It is more than a century and a half since Maraldi studied the form of the cells of the hive bee, and described them as hexagonal prisms with trihedral bases, each face of the base being a rhomb, the greater angles of which were $109^{\circ} 28'$, and the lesser $70^{\circ} 32'$.* Twenty-five years later, Reaumer, the most admirable of the observers of insect life, with the view of ascertaining how far such a form was an economical one, proposed to Koenig the following problem,—“Of all hexagonal cells, having a pyramidal base composed of three equal and similar rhombs, to determine that which can be constructed with the least amount of material.”† It is a part of the history of this subject, that Koenig's results differed from those of Maraldi by two minutes in each of the angles, the former having made them $109^{\circ} 26'$ and $70^{\circ} 34'$. It has recently been stated that the table of logarithms used by Koenig had an error which would exactly account for the difference.

Admitting an error of two minutes in each of the angles, still the close correspondence between the results of Koenig and the measurements of Maraldi was well fitted to excite the wonder and admiration of all, and from that time to this the belief has prevailed, that the instinct of the bee enables it to construct such a cell as that sought in Reaumer's problem, if not in all cases, at least in the larger portion of them, without sensible error. It were unjust to keep out of sight the fact, that, however correct the measurements of Maraldi may have been, he has left no record of his method of making them, and furthermore, the possibility of measuring the angles of such a structure as the cell of the bee, without liability to an error of one or two degrees in each angle, is denied by competent authorities, since the angles of the cell are nowhere sharply defined and the surfaces are not strictly planes.‡

* *Mem. Acad. des Sciences*, 1712.

† *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Insectes*, Tom. V. p. 389. Paris, 1740.

‡ The first person who appears to have called Maraldi's measurements in question was Father Boscovich, “who had supposed that the admeasurement of the angles was too nice to be accurately performed, and that the coincidence of M.

The mineralogist, treating the cell as a crystalline form, would not expect a closer approximation to exact measurement than that just stated.

Lord Brougham, who, of later writers, has written the most elaborately on the subject, in his essay entitled *Observations, Demonstrations, and Experiments upon the Structure of the Cells of Bees*, after having himself solved Reaumer's problem, after having obtained solutions of it through others, and after having himself measured the cells, asserts positively that they are constructed in accordance with the form deduced from calculation, and are therefore exact. Having compared the sides of the cell by measurement with a micrometer, he says, "I certainly can find no inequality."* Again, "She [the bee] works so that the rhomboidal plate may have one particular diameter and no other, always the same length, and that its four angles may be always the same"; † and he still further adds, "The construction of the cell, then, is demonstrated to be such that no other which could be conceived would take so little material and labor to afford the same room." ‡

We have looked carefully through Lord Brougham's essay, for a recognition of the existence of irregularities in the cells, but have found none, except of such as are of microscopic size. "The lines," he says, "may not be exactly even which the bee forms; the surfaces may have inequalities to the bee's eye, though to our sight they seem plane; and the angles, instead of being pointed, may be blunt or roundish, but the proportions are the same: the equality of the sides is maintained, and the angles are of the same size, that is, the inclination of the planes is just. . . . Now, then, the bee places a plane in such a position, whatever be the roughness of the surface, that its inclination to another plane is the true one required." §

Lord Brougham's answer to L'Houillier's criticisms may be cited to the same effect. When the latter speaks of the conditions re-

Maraldi's measurements with theory could only arise from his assuming that the angle of inclination of the rhomboidal plane was the same with that of the hexagon, viz. 120° , from which, no doubt, it would follow that the angles of the rhombuses should be $109^\circ 28'$ and $70^\circ 32'$ respectively."—Lord Brougham, *Nat. Theol.*, p. 351.

* *Natural Theology*, London, 1856, p. 224.

† *Ibid.*, p. 197.

‡ *Ibid.*, p. 324.

§ *Ibid.*, p. 191.

quired being such as theory and observation "nearly agree" in giving to the cells, Lord Brougham replies: "The 'nearly' is quite incorrect: there is an absolute and perfect agreement between theory and observation." *

Mathematicians appear to be of one accord in this; viz. if economy of space and wax is sought, that the form of the cell should be the one alleged to have been ascertained by Maraldi, and which was really calculated by Koenig, and by hundreds of others since his time. Careful observations, however, tend to prove that such a cell is rarely, perhaps never, realized. For, while the deviations from the true form do not exceed a certain limit, a piece of comb, ten cells square, can hardly be found in which one or more irregularities do not occur, of such magnitude, that, however they may look to the bee's eye, can be readily detected by man's. The best observers, such as Reaumer, Hunter, the Hubers, and others, have noticed some of these, but as their investigations had for their chief object the clearing up of other points relating to the habits of the bee, the irregularities of the cells were passed by, for the most part, with merely a mention.

Worker Cells.— These will be treated of first, because they are the most numerous. The drones of a hive only amount at the most to a few hundreds, while the workers are estimated at many thousands, and the number of cells is proportional to the number of young reared. All the varieties found in the worker are repeated in the drone and honey cells, though in the last-mentioned kind the variations are the most marked, and some are introduced which are not found in either of the others.

The average *diameter* of a worker cell, measured on a line perpendicular to its sides, as deduced from the following table, is 0.201, or one fifth of an inch, but it may be increased or diminished in different parts of the same comb.† Reaumer expresses his belief that this was the case, but he gives no measurements. The table given below is the result of the examination of four pieces of comb, which were in all re-

* *Op. cit.*, p. 350.

† Reaumer found that twenty worker cells measured four inches less half of a line; "neglecting the half of a line, the diameter of a single cell would be 2.4 lines" (French); and Huber gives the same dimensions, as also Kirby and Spence, who quote their description of everything relating to the bee from Reaumer and Huber. Latreille found that 76 millimeters comprised 14 cells, when measured in one direction, and 14.5 in another.

spects good average specimens. First, a line of ten cells,* arranged in the direction of the diameter, perpendicular to one of the sides, and then two other sets of the same number, similarly arranged in the direction of the other two diameters, and crossing the first, were carefully measured. Three series of such measurements were made from different parts of each comb. The columns marked I., II., III. give the measurements in the direction of the three diameters.

Combs.	I.	II.	III.	Greatest Difference.
	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.
A Series, 1	2.04	1.95	1.98	0.09
2	2.04	1.93	1.95	0.11
3	2.10	2.02	1.92	0.18
B Series, 1	2.00	2.03	2.05	0.05
2	1.98	2.02	2.05	0.07
3	2.04	2.05	2.05	0.01
C Series, 1	2.05	2.05	1.98	0.07
2	2.08	2.08	1.98	0.10
3	2.09	2.08	1.98	0.11
D Series, 1	1.93	1.97	1.95	0.04
2	1.97	2.06	1.85	0.21
3	2.00	1.99	2.10	0.11

The greatest aggregate diameter of any one series of ten cells was 2.10 inches, and the least 1.85 inches, making a difference of 0.25 inch, or the diameter of a cell and a quarter. The average difference is, however, a little less than 0.10 inch. These irregularities do not accumulate beyond a certain amount, and those of one portion are often counteracted in another portion of the same row. In a large piece of comb, sixty cells occupied the space of one foot, which would make the diameter of a cell equal to 0.20 inch; nevertheless, ten cells taken from either end, and ten taken from the middle of this same comb, when compared, gave marked differences. This correction is not, however, a constant condition, for we have, perhaps in most instances, found Hunter's statement correct, viz. that the cells gradually increase in size, the last formed being the largest.†

* Ten cells were measured, in order to avoid the accumulating error resulting from the measurement of a series of single cells. The error in the measurement of ten cells is no greater than that of measuring one, and divided among the ten becomes inappreciable.

† Works of John Hunter, Palmer's edition, Vol. IV. p. 436.

It may be asked, if the comb was not built with all its diameters equal, but afterwards accidentally disturbed. The comb is suspended mostly from the uppermost portion, the lowermost hanging free until considerable progress is made, when it is more or less attached by the sides; taking into consideration the material of it, and the weight, when filled with honey, or covered with crowds of bees, it seems quite probable that in a hot day the softened wax would be stretched by its own weight, thus making the transverse diameter of the cells shorter, and the others proportionally longer. To test this, cells from six different pieces of comb were measured in the direction of their three diameters; the result was, that the aggregate transverse diameters of 570 cells was 38.94 inches, and that of the other two was 38.84 and 38.90 inches respectively. The transverse diameter, the one liable to be shortened, was absolutely a little the longest.

A variation in the diameters does not necessarily bring with it an inequality in the breadth of the sides, or a difference in the angles. If, however, one of the sides is wider or narrower than the others, which it often is, the angle which it makes with the adjoining ones must be greater or less than 120° , the normal angle. In order to be able to measure the sides as accurately as possible, cross sections were made midway between the mouth and base of the cell, where they are thinnest and the angles sharpest. These sections were obtained by filling the cells with plaster of Paris, and after this had hardened, cutting them down to the required point. In this way, all distortion was prevented. The following table gives the result of the measurement of the different sides of a series of twelve cells.

Sides.	CELLS.											
	I.	II.	III.	IV.	V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.	IX.	X.	XI.	XII.
	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.	In.
1	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.13	0.11	0.10	0.12	0.07	0.14	0.00	0.13	0.10
2	0.12	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.13	0.14	0.15	0.14
3	0.15	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.13	0.14	0.13	0.15	0.09	0.14	0.13	0.14
4	0.11	0.13	0.14	0.10	0.11	0.11	0.12	0.11	0.14	0.10	0.13	0.12
5	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.12	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.11	0.10	0.14	0.09	0.13
6	0.14	0.13	0.12	0.14	0.13	0.11	0.14	0.14	0.09	0.14	0.10	0.15

Smallest side in 72 cells, 0.070 inch.

Average " " " " 0.125 "

Longest " " " " 0.150 "

Of all the parts of the cell there is none where the variation is more striking than in the *rhombic faces* of the base. This fact is the more noteworthy, since it is upon these, and the angles they make with each other and the sides, that rests the nicest part of the problem relating to the adaptation of the cell to the contained bee. The relative size of the faces may be so changed that two of them make nearly the whole of the base, while the third almost vanishes, or one of the faces may have any size between this extreme and the normal one.

The fourth face, which has been so often noticed, has generally been spoken of as belonging more especially to those cells which are intermediate between the cells of drones and workers. Although it occurs in these, we have found it quite common in the middle of pieces of comb consisting solely of either worker, drone, or honey cells.* In one piece of worker comb containing about five hundred cells, nearly all had a fourth face.

The causes which lead to the introduction of the fourth face are chiefly two, irregularity in the size of the cells and incorrect alignment of them on the two sides of the comb. Each cell on one side of the comb being normally in contact, by its rhombic faces, with three cells on the other, and these fitting exactly, if a cell is increased, it will project beyond them, and thus come in contact with a fourth, and a new face will be formed. We have seen this happen in a single cell, but very commonly a row of cells increases for four or five cells, and gradually diminishes again to the ordinary size. With this increase and decrease of the cell, the fourth face comes and goes.

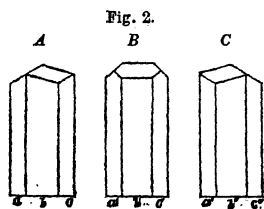
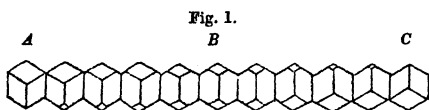
Incorrect alignment is the more common cause.† If a given row of

* These were studied either after cutting away the body of the cells, leaving only the basal plate which separates those of opposite sides, or by means of casts obtained by filling the cells with plaster of Paris. After this last has dried, if the mass is heated, the wax is absorbed by the plaster, when the casts of the two sets of cells separate. In old brood-combs, where many successive cocoons have been spun, these form a thick and resisting cast of the base of the cell and may be extracted, giving its precise form. In some instances, fourteen distinct layers of cocoons were counted, showing the number of broods which had occupied the cells.

† This introduction of the fourth face to the basal pyramid, through incorrect alignment, was thoroughly investigated several years since by Mr. Chauncey Wright, of the Nautical Almanac Office, and who, at the same time, constructed models illustrating his views. These models are deposited in the Museum of Comparative Anatomy and Physiology at Cambridge. For a discussion of various points connected with the geometry of the cell, see his article, entitled *The Economy and Symmetry of the Honey-Bee's Cell*, in the *Mathematical Monthly* for June, 1860.

cells on one side of the comb ceases to be parallel with those on the other, with which it was connected when the comb was begun, and diverges from them, it is gradually transferred to a new series; as the cells come in contact with those of the new series, the fourth side appears, and, at the same time, one of the original sides, viz. that directly opposite to it, is gradually diminished, and may vanish. This divergence is, however, sometimes insufficient to make the separation of the rows complete, and may gradually diminish again, as they are extended by the construction of new cells, so as to bring them back to the original position, when the irregularity is corrected.

If, however, the separation of the two rows at length becomes complete, so that one of the faces is lost and a new one formed, all the basal portion of the cell becomes reversed, as will be seen by reference to

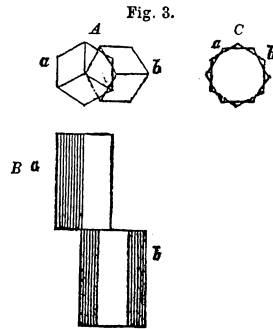


Figs. 1 and 2; the first representing the cells when the base is viewed, and the second when looked at perpendicularly to one of the sides. In both figures *A* indicates the ordinary form of the cell. The whole series of Fig. 1 shows the gradual introduction of the new face, which is seen on the lower border, and the

elimination of one of the original faces, which is seen on the upper border. At *B*, which is intermediate between the two extremes, the four faces consist of two equal rhombs, — one of which is the outgoing and the other the incoming one, — and two equal hexagons. *B*, Fig. 2, represents the sides of the same cell, which, instead of forming three trapeziums, as at *A*, *a*, *b*, *c*, now form two pentagons, *a'* and *c'*, and a parallelogram, *b'*. At *C*, Figs. 1 and 2, the forms are in all respects the reverse of those of *A*. *A* and *C* are symmetrical with each other, and *B* is symmetrical in itself. No precise number of cells is necessary for the purpose of making this transition, for it may take place in two or three, or extend through a long series, as in Fig. 1.

There is another variation which we have noticed twice, — once in drone, and once in worker comb, involving a large number of cells. If a piece of normal comb be held in the position in which it was built,

two of the opposite angles of the hexagon, Fig. 3, *A*, *a*, will be in the same vertical line, and two of the sides will be parallel to this. The same is true of the opposite side of the comb; and thus all the corresponding parts of the cells on the two sides will be parallel. In the deviation we are now noticing, the change is like that represented in *A*, where the cell *a* is in its true position, while the cell *b*, which is from the opposite side, and is in contact with *a*, varies from it by



about 30° . If we look at these two cells in the direction of their sides as at *B*, the prism *a* will have one of its angles towards the eye, and *b* one of its sides. If rows of cells are constructed on each of the sides *a* and *b*, Fig. 3, *B*, it will be seen that the rows thus formed on the two faces of the comb will cross each other continually. A modification of this variety is seen at *C*, where the axes of the two adjoining prisms, instead of being separated as usual by the semidiameter of a cell, coincide; consequently, as the apices of the angles of *a* project beyond the sides of *b*, *a* will not only be in contact with *b*, but by its angles with the six cells by which *b* is surrounded. In either of these cases the pyramidal base becomes impracticable, and the flat bottom of the cell is substituted for it almost as a matter of necessity. The bottoms of the cells being flat, it is obvious that the change of position by rotation of the cell on its axis may be carried to any extent, without leading to an interference with the cells of the opposite side; in fact several degrees of it have been observed.

Since the mouths of such cells are in the same plane with those normally constructed in the same comb, and since the pyramidal base is cut off, they are shortened by an amount equal to the height of that of the base, and therefore are of a proportionately less capacity than the normal cell. Nevertheless, such truncated cells are used for rearing the young, and, like the others, were found to contain cocoons.

In curved or bent combs the cells on the concave side tend to become narrower, while those on the other tend to become broader towards their mouths. The bees meet this emergency in one of the following ways:—

On the convex side, —

1st. By allowing the cavity of this cell to become broader, without any correction being made.

2d. By thickening the walls of the cell in proportion to its tendency to become broader, and thus keeping the diameter of its cavity uniform.

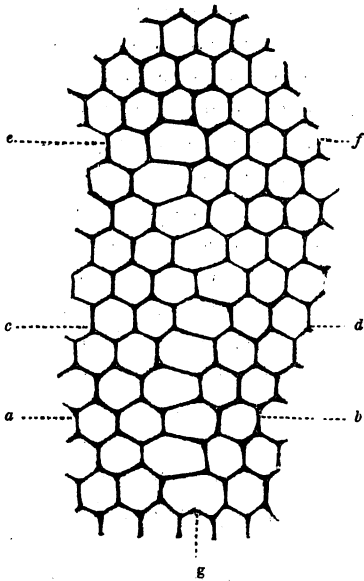
3d. When the divergence reaches a certain amount, by making a false-cell, with a pointed bottom, between the diverging cells.

On the concave side, —

1st. By narrowing the cell towards its mouth.

2d. When two adjoining cells converge so much as to render the mouth too small, the walls between them are suppressed at a certain point, and thus the two mouths are merged, and the compound cell thus formed has a double base, and but one entrance, the two cells being combined, as are certain kinds of twin crystals, or of double monsters. The form of the mouth under these circumstances is, however, liable to a considerable range of variation, as in the central line

Fig. 4.



of cells in Fig. 4,* in which are a variety of hexagons. That on the line *a, b* has three sides at one end, united by two long sides with one at the other, and thus two of the opposite sides are not parallel; at *c, d*, two sides at either end are united by two long sides, these last being parallel; and at *e, f*, the mouth of the compound cell has seven sides. Each has a partition at its base, separating the two originally distinct cells, and each was lined with a cocoon, showing that it had been used for rearing young.

In combining the mouths of two adjoining cells, it will be seen that this does not consist merely in suppressing the partition between

them; for if this were so, each of the long sides would contain more or less of an angle, as at the lower side of *g*, according to the degree of convergence, until three of the sides of each of the combining cells had disappeared. Instead of this, the portions of two sides forming the angle just referred to are replaced by one straight side, as on the upper side of *g*, and in both of the long sides of the undulating line of cells above it.

* Figs. 4, 5, and 6 are made from impressions obtained directly from the comb and transferred to wood. They represent the forms of the cells exactly.

Drone Cells. — These are liable to substantially the same variations as the worker cells. Reaumer observed that they were larger by one ninth in one diameter than in another.* Four pieces of drone comb gave the following measurements.

Combs.		I.	II.	III.	Greatest Difference.
		Inch.	Inch.	Inch.	Inch.
A Series,	1	2.63	2.72	2.67	0.09
	2	2.70	2.60	2.72	0.12
	3	2.80	2.58	2.60	0.20
B Series,	1	2.47	2.70	2.54	0.23
	2	2.54	2.50	2.55	0.05
	3	2.56	2.58	2.37	0.21
C Series,	1	2.54	2.55	2.47	0.08
	2	2.59	2.50	2.55	0.09
	3	2.64	2.61	2.68	0.07
D Series,	1	2.40	2.47	2.46	0.07
	2	2.45	2.43	2.36	0.09
	3	2.67	2.52	2.49	0.18

I., II., III., in the above table, indicate the diameters drawn perpendicularly to the three pairs of sides of the hexagons, and series 1, 2, 3 indicate measurements of cells made from three portions of each comb. Ten cells were measured in each case.

In comparing all of the above measurements, it is found that the smallest aggregate diameter of any ten cells is 2.36 inches, and the largest, 2.80 inches, making an extreme difference of 0.44 inch, or the diameter of a drone and almost that of a worker cell in addition. The greatest variation in any one series was 0.21, or a little more than four fifths of the diameter of a drone cell, which is somewhat less than the quantity given by Reaumer.

The following measurements from twelve consecutive rows of cells, of ten each, from the middle of a piece of drone comb, show the progressive variation from one row to another.

1st row	2.47 inches.	7th row	2.64 inches.
2d "	2.50 "	8th "	2.67 "
3d "	2.51 "	9th "	2.67 "
4th "	2.54 "	10th "	2.66 "
5th "	2.58 "	11th "	2.63 "
6th "	2.62 "	12th "	2.65 "

* *Op. cit.*, Tom. V. p. 398.

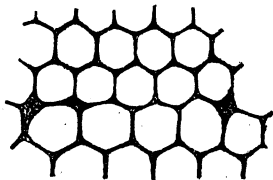
Transition Cells. — As drone are one fifth larger than worker cells, and as both are combined in one and the same piece of comb, a transition cannot be made from one to the other without some disturbance in the regularity of the structure. It would be a nice problem to determine the way in which this could be effected with the greatest economy of space and material. The bees do not appear to have any systematic method of making such a change. More commonly, they effect it by a gradual alteration of the diameters, thus enlarging a worker into a drone, or narrowing a drone into a worker cell. This alteration is usually made in from four to six rows. The following table gives an illustration of the rate of alteration in such a case, beginning with four drone cells of the usual size, and ending with four worker cells.

Four drone cells measured in the

1st row	1.02 inch.
2d "	0.97 "
3d "	0.95 "
4th "	0.86 "
5th "	0.83 "
6th "	0.80 "

This last measurement exactly equals that of four worker cells. The rate of the reduction of the size of the cell is not uniform, the differences between successive rows being .05, .02, .01, .03, .03 inch. We have, however, seen the transition made with two rows of transitional

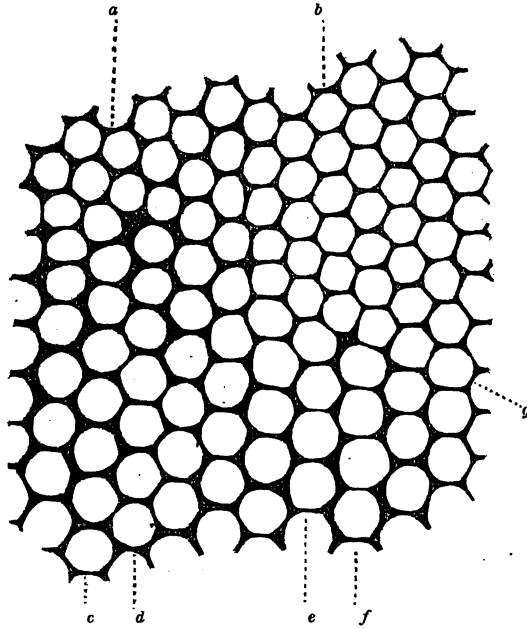
Fig. 5.



cells, and as in Fig. 5, with only one. In this last case, the regularity of two adjoining rows is sacrificed.

In consequence of the gradual narrowing or widening of the transition cells, the comb tends to become more or less triangular and the cells to become disturbed. The bees counteract this tendency by the occasional intercalation of an additional row, of which two instances are given in Fig. 6, at *a* and *b*, where three rows of worker cells are continuous with two of drone cells, *c d* and *e f*; or, reversing the statement, and supposing the transition, as in the building of the comb, is from worker to drone cells, a row of the latter is from time to time omitted as the rows *a* and *b*; in this way,

Fig. 6.



the regularity of the comb is preserved.* This, however, is not done at definite intervals ; for in one piece of comb two intercalated series were nine cells apart, in another, six, and in another, four.

Mr. Langstroth has given a good figure, illustrating the form of the mouths of some of the cells where the worker and drone cells come together.†

The presence of a fourth face in the base of the transitional cells is by no means constant, as asserted by several observers, for we have seen the change from worker to drone cells without the fourth face appearing in any of them.

In all the transitional cells of brood-comb cocoons are invariably found, showing that they have been occupied. It is obvious that some of these would be either too large for a worker or too small for a

* This figure was made from a piece of old brood-comb, in which the lip of the drone cells was very much thickened, and the mouths were almost circular. There is nothing abnormal in this, except at those points where the row of intercalated cells, as *a* and *b*, connect with the drone cells.

† Treatise on the Bee, p. 74 and Pl. XV. *ii*

drone. It would, therefore, be of considerable interest to know whether such cells are occupied by one or the other of these kinds of bees. The determination of this point is important on another account. Siebold has ascertained that drones do not require impregnation, while the workers as well as the queens do; and as the act of impregnation is voluntary with the queen, she is supposed to have some guide to inform her whether a given egg is to become one or the other kind, for she never makes a mistake and impregnates an egg in a drone cell, or omits to impregnate one in a worker cell. Siebold, therefore, supposes that the queen is guided by the size of the mouth of the cell, and if the abdomen touches one kind, impregnation takes place, and if the other, not. The transitional cells being intermediate, would not by their size give her the usual indication.

Honey Cells.— When the stock of honey becomes greater than the ordinary brood cells will contain, the bees either enlarge these, or add to them other cells often of larger capacity, or construct a new comb, devoted entirely to the storing of honey. While the cells of this last are built unequivocally in accordance with the hexagonal type, they exhibit a range of variation from it which almost defies description. Of all who have written on the subject, Mr. Langstroth is the only one we have met with who seems to have particularly mentioned their irregularity, which he does in the following words: "Those [cells] in which the honey is stored vary greatly in depth, while in diameter they are of all sizes, from that of a worker to that of drone cells."* We have found them even 2.10 inches in depth, or four times that of a worker cell; sometimes they are square or pentagonal; their alignment is rarely if ever exact, so that the presence of a fourth face is more common than with the other kinds. The basal pyramid changes constantly; the cast of a piece of comb, containing over four hundred cells, showed but few in which there was not some irregularity obvious to the eye; either the faces were unequal, or there was a fourth, and even a fifth face, or the pyramid was too high or too low, or suppressed, or the body of the cell was not equilateral, or its angles too large or too small. The normal angle which one side makes with its adjoining ones is 120° ; the following measurements, taken from casts of average specimens, exhibit a degree of variation by no means unusual.

* On the Honey-Bee, p. 74. New York, 1859.

Angles.	CELLS.			
	I.	II.	III.	IV.
1	117°	117°	112°	113°
2	122	124	127	130
3	121	116	120	122
4	110	119	114	110
5	135	125	125	126
6	115	118	121	117

Largest angle, 135°.0

Average of the 24 angles, 119°.5

Smallest, 110°.0

The above measurements were made with an accurate goniometer; those of cells I. and II. by Professor Cooke, and of III. and IV. by the author, and each is the average of three; but, in nearly every case, there is an error of from one to three degrees, which is inseparable from the measurement of surfaces and angles which are not exact.

When honey cells are built on a curved dividing wall, the bees seem to make no attempt to correct the effect of the converging and diverging lines. In the brood-combs they usually make an attempt, at least, to keep the cavity of the cells of the usual shape; but in the honey-comb we have seen the mouths of the cell in one diameter expanded to double their usual size. The most of the irregularities seem to have no obvious cause, but all looks as if the bees, aware that close conformity to the type-form was unnecessary for the mere storing of honey, became careless in executing their work.

The distribution of the wax in the sides and angles of the cells, as seen in the sections, appears to the naked eye quite regular; but, with the aid of a low power, is often quite the reverse. One can easily detect an inequality in the thickness of the walls, — two different walls of the same cell, or two parts of one and the same wall being not unfrequently the one double the thickness of the other. The excavation of the angles, though sometimes wonderfully exact, is frequently done in such a way that the apices of opposite angles do not correspond. This is equally true of all of the three kinds of cells. In the cells, and still better in the casts of them, one can easily observe the fact that the edges of the sides are never exactly planes, and that consequently the line of union of two adjoining sides is somewhat undulating.

The statements made in the foregoing pages tend to show that the

cell of the bee has not the strict conformity to geometrical accuracy so often claimed for it, but, as the best observers have maintained, is liable to marked variations, chief among which the following may be mentioned.

1st. The diameters of worker cells may so vary, that ten of them may have an aggregate deviation from the normal quantity, equal to the diameter of a cell. The average variation is a little less than one half that amount, viz. nearly 0.10 inch, in the same number of cells.

2d. The width of the sides varies, and this generally involves a variation of the angles which adjoining sides make with each other, since the sides vary not only in length, but in direction.

3d. The variation in the diameters does not depend upon accidental distortion, but upon the manner in which the cell was built.

4th. The relative size of the rhombic faces of the pyramidal base is liable to frequent variation, and this where the cells are not transitional from one kind to another.

5th. When a fourth side exists in the basal pyramid, it may be in consequence of irregularity in the size of the cells, or of incorrect alignment of them on the two sides of the comb.

6th. Ordinarily, the error of alignment does not amount to more than one or two diameters of a cell. But occasionally the rows of cells on one side of the comb may deviate from their true direction with regard to those on the other, to the extent of 30° . In consequence of this deviation and the continual crossing of the rows on opposite sides, the pyramidal base is not made, and the cell is thereby shortened.

7th. When a piece of comb is strongly curved, or two portions form an angle with each other, there is no constant way in which the tendency to the distortion of the cells is met; consequently the cells found at the curves or angles have a variety of patterns.

8th. Deformed worker and drone cells are used for rearing the young.

All of these variations are found in the three different kinds of cells, but are much more frequent and marked in the honey than in either worker or drone cells. In view of the frequency of such, however near the bee may come to a typical cell in the construction of its comb, it may be reasonably doubted whether a type cell is ever made. Here, as is so often the case elsewhere in nature, the type-form is an ideal one, and, with this, real forms seldom or never coincide. Even in crys-

tallography, where the forms are essentially geometrical, we are told that "natural crystals are always more or less distorted or imperfect," and that "the science of crystallography could never have been developed from observation alone";* i. e. without recourse to ideal conceptions. An assertion, like that of Lord Brougham, that there is in the cell of the bee "perfect agreement" between theory and observation, in view of the analogies of nature, is far more likely to be wrong than right; and his assertion in the case before us is certainly wrong. Much error would have been avoided, if those who have discussed the structure of the bee's cell had adopted the plan followed by Mr. Darwin, and studied the habits of the cell-making insects comparatively, beginning with the cells of the humble-bee, following with those of the wasps and hornets, then with those of the Mexican bees (*Melipona*), and, finally, with those of the common hive-bee. In this way, while they would have found that there is a constant approach to the perfect form, they would at the same time have been prepared for the fact, that even in the cell of the hive-bee perfection is not reached. The isolated study of anything in natural history is a fruitful source of error.

Since bees give so much variety to the forms of their cells, and can adapt them to peculiar circumstances, some of which do not occur in nature, as, for example, in Huber's experiment with the glass surface, which last they so persistently avoided, and in view of the fact, too, that in meeting a given emergency they do not always adopt the same method, one is driven to the conclusion that the instinct of one and the same species either is not uniform in its action and is quite adaptive in its quality, or to admit, with Reaumer, that bees work with a certain degree of intelligence.

Five hundred and sixty-first Meeting.

January 31, 1866. — STATUTE MEETING.

The PRESIDENT in the chair.

The Corresponding Secretary read letters from Prof. Tayler Lewis, Mr. L. M. Rutherford, Dr. J. W. Draper, Mr. G. W. Hill, and M. Chasles, in acknowledgment of their election into the Academy.

The President read a letter from Mr. Richard Greenough, presenting to the Academy a bust of Sir Charles Lyell.

* Professor Cooke, Religion and Chemistry, p. 287.